

# Notes for Algebraic Structures

Spring 2016

Transcribed by Jacob Van Buren  
([jvanbure@andrew.cmu.edu](mailto:jvanbure@andrew.cmu.edu))

Notes for Algebraic Structures, taught Spring 2016 at Carnegie Mellon University, by Professor Clinton Conley.

## Administrativa

**Instructor.** Clinton Conley ([clintonc@andrew.cmu.edu](mailto:clintonc@andrew.cmu.edu)), WEH 7121  
<http://www.math.cmu.edu/~clintonc/>

**Grading.** 20% HW,  $20\% \times 2$  midterms, 40% Final

**Homework.** Wednesday-Wednesday. Graded for completeness, one starred problem for which no collaboration of any type is allowed.  
Most homework out of textbook (“D&F”).

## Contents

Administrativia	
The Integers	1
Lecture 1 (2016-01-11)	1
Lecture 2 (2016-01-13)	1
Lecture 3 (2016-01-15)	2
The Integers (mod $n$ )	3
Groups	5
Lecture 4 (2016-01-20)	5
Symmetric Groups	7
Lecture 5 (2016-01-25)	7
Lecture 6 (2016-01-27)	8
Subgroups	9
(Left) Coset equivalence	10
Lecture 7 (2016-01-29)	10
Index	12

# The Integers

## Lecture 1 (2016–01–11)

NOTATION.  $\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  in this class.

Properties: Order, other things. Least element in a set  $S$ :  $x \in S$  s.t.  $\forall y \in S, x \leq y$   
Addition  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ :

- Associativity  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
- Identity  $x + 0 = 0 + x = x$
- Inversion  $x + (-x) = (-x) + x = 0$
- Commutativity  $x + y = y + x$

Multiplication  $(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot)$ :

- Associative
- Distributive
- Identity (“1”)

Integer division: Assume  $x$  an integer and  $y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  then  $\exists! d \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists! r \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 \leq r < y, x = d \cdot y + r$

DEFINITION 1.  $y|x$  “ $y$  divides  $x$ ” iff  $\exists d \in \mathbb{Z} : x = d \cdot y$ .

E.g.  $3|9, 4 \nmid 7$ .

DEFINITION 2.  $d$  is a gcd of  $x$  and  $y$  if

- $d|x, d|y$
- If  $c|x$  and  $c|y$  then  $c|d$

## Lecture 2 (2016–01–13)

DEFINITION 3. Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , denote by  $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$  the set  $\{ax + by | x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ .

THEOREM 4 (Euclid, Bezout). Suppose  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  are nonzero and let  $d$  be the smallest positive element of  $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$ , then  $d$  is the unique positive GCD of  $a$  and  $b$ .

PROOF.  $d$  is a gcd of  $a, b$

(1) (Existence of positive GCD)

- (a) By integer division,  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 \leq r < d$  such that  $a = qd + r$ . If  $r = 0$  then  $d|a$ , so done. Otherwise, suppose  $0 < r < d$ , so  $r = a - qd$  since  $d \in \mathbb{Z}(a, b)$ , we may fix  $x, y$  st  $d = ax + by$ , meaning  $r = a - q(ax + by) = a(1 - qx) + b(-qy)$ , so  $r \in \mathbb{Z}(a, b)$ , meaning  $d$  was not the minimal positive element in  $\mathbb{Z}(a, b)$ , RAA. Thus,  $d|a$
- (b) HW: If  $c|a$  and  $c|b$  then  $c|(ax + by)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  Hence  $c|d$

- (2) (Uniqueness of positive GCD) Suppose  $d_1, d_2$  are both positive gcds of  $a$  and  $b$ .  $d_1 | d_2$  and  $d_2 | d_1$  as they are both gcds. i.e.,  $\exists m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $d_2 = md_1$  and  $d_1 = nd_2$ . As  $\text{sgn}(d_1) = \text{sgn}(d_2)$ ,  $m \geq 0$  and  $n \geq 0$ . As  $d_1 = mnd_1$ ,  $m = n = 1$ . Thus  $d_1 = d_2$ .  $\square$

DEFINITION 5. Relatively prime  $\iff \gcd(a, b) = 1$

THEOREM 6. Suppose  $p$  is prime and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  are nonzero, and  $p | (ab)$  then  $p | a$  or  $p | b$ .

PROOF. Consider  $d = \gcd(p, a)$ . Since  $d | p$ , we know  $d = p$  or  $d = 1$ .

If  $d = p$ : By def of GCD,  $d | p$  and  $d | a$  ie.  $p | p$  and  $p | a$  so we're done.

If  $d = 1$ : Fix integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $px + ay = 1$ .  $b = p(xb) + (ab)y$  as  $p | p(xb)$  and  $p | \underbrace{(ab)}_{\uparrow} y$ ,  $p | b$ .  $\square$

THEOREM 7 (Unique Prime Factorization). Suppose that  $a > 1$  an integer,  $m, n \geq 1$  and  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_m, q_1 \leq q_2 \leq \dots \leq q_n$  are positive primes.

Then  $m = n$  and  $p_i = q_i$  for all  $i$ .

PROOF. By induction, it suffices to show  $p_1 = q_1$ . Suppose not. WLOG, assume  $p_1 < q_1$ . We know that  $p_1 | a$  (as  $p_1 | q_1 q_2 \dots q_n$ ) Hence,  $\exists i \leq n$  such that  $p_i | q_i$ . since  $p_i$  and  $q_i$  prime,  $p_i = q_i$ . However,  $p_1 < q_1 \leq q_i = p_1$  so  $p_1 < p_2$  contradiction.

Hence  $p_1 = q_1$  so by induction, we're done.  $\square$

### Lecture 3 (2016-01-15)

Teaser: Construct numbers of the form  $a + b\sqrt{-5}$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Notion of addition still exists: (similar to complex numbers, coefficients remain integers)

Same with multiplication

Among these "numbers", 2 is irreducible. But, 2 is not prime, as  $2 \nmid (1 + \sqrt{-5})$  and  $2 \nmid (1 + \sqrt{-5})$ , but  $2 | \underbrace{(1 + \sqrt{-5})(1 - \sqrt{-5})}_{=6=2 \cdot 3}$ .

## The Integers (mod $n$ )

For today,  $n > 0$ .

DEFINITION 8. For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  we say  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  iff  $n \mid (b - a)$ .

$\equiv$  is an *equivalence relation*

- Reflexivity:  $a \equiv a$
- Symmetry:  $a \equiv b \iff b \equiv a$
- Transitivity:  $a \equiv b \wedge b \equiv c \implies a \equiv c$

PROOF. We know that  $a \equiv b$  and  $b \equiv c$ , i.e.  $n \mid (b - a)$  and  $n \mid (c - b)$ . We want  $a \equiv c$ , i.e.,  $n \mid (c - a)$

$$c - a = c + (-b + b) - a = \underbrace{(c - b) + (b - a)}_{n \text{ divides these}}$$

□

DEFINITION 9. Denote by  $\bar{a}$  or  $[a]_n$  the equivalence class of  $a$  with respect to  $\equiv \pmod{n}$  (I.e., The set  $\{b \in \mathbb{Z} : a \equiv b \pmod{n}\} = \{a + kn : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ ).

EXAMPLE. If  $n = 2$ , there are 2 equivalence classes:

$$\bar{0} = \{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\} = \bar{2} = \bar{-36}$$

$$\bar{1} = \{\dots, -3, -1, 1, 3, \dots\}$$

DEFINITION 10. Denote by  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  the collection of all  $\equiv \pmod{n}$  equivalence classes.

E.g.  $\mathbb{Z}/2\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}\}$

“Define” addition and multiplication on  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{a} + \bar{b} &= \overline{a + b} \\ \bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} &= \overline{ab}\end{aligned}$$

Makes sense, but we need to check that this definition makes any sense at all (make sure it's *well-defined*). Specifically, we need to make sure that the results of these operations doesn't depend on the representatives of the equivalence classes we chose (e.g. check that  $\bar{x} + \bar{z} \equiv \bar{y} + \bar{z}$  if  $x \equiv y$ ).

For brevity, we just show addition.

THEOREM 11.  $+$  and  $\cdot$  are well-defined on  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$

PROOF. (of  $\cdot$ ) Assume that  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a_1 \equiv a_2 \pmod{n}$  and  $b_1 \equiv b_2 \pmod{n}$ . Then, we want to show that  $a_1 b_1 \equiv a_2 b_2 \pmod{n}$ .

We know:  $n \mid (a_2 - a_1)$  and  $n \mid (b_2 - b_1)$ .

We want:  $n \mid (a_2b_2 - a_1b_1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} a_2b_2 - a_1b_1 &= a_2b_2 + (-a_1b_2 + a_1b_2) - a_1b_1 \\ &= (a_2b_2 - a_1b_2) + (a_1b_2 - a_1b_1) \\ &= \underbrace{(a_2 - a_1)b_2 + a_1(b_2 - b_1)}_{n \text{ divides these}} \end{aligned}$$

So,  $n \mid (a_2b_2 - a_1b_1)$  as desired □

Remark: This is a special case of a “quotient construction,” in which you start with a set and an equivalence relation on it and operations on the set that “respect” the equivalence relations (i.e. equivalent inputs yield equivalent outputs)

Moar notes: Multiplicative inverses are uncommon in the integers (only for 1 and  $-1$ ). However, it’s “more prevalent” in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  in the following sense:

**THEOREM 12.** *Suppose  $n > 0$  is an integer,  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\gcd(n, a) = 1$  (they’re coprime). Then there is  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  (alternatively,  $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{1}$ )*

**PROOF.** Use Bezout’s theorem (from last lecture) Take integers  $x, y$  such that  $nx + ay = \gcd(a, n) = 1$ . Then,  $nx = 1 - ay$ , so  $n \mid (1 - ay)$ , so  $1 \equiv ay \pmod{n}$ . Choose  $b = y$  and we’re done ( $\bar{a}\bar{b} \equiv \bar{1}$ ). □

## Groups

DEFINITION 13. We say that  $*$  is a binary operation on some set  $X$  if it is a function  $*$  :  $X \times X \rightarrow X$ . (That is,  $*$  accepts two (ordered) inputs from  $X$  and it outputs one element of  $X$ .)

Remark: usually write  $a * b$  for the output of  $*$  on the input  $(a, b)$ .

DEFINITION 14. A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $*$  (often abbreviated  $(G, *)$ ) satisfying the following 3 axioms.

- i. Associativity:  $\forall a, b, c \in G : (a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$
- ii. Identity: There is some  $e \in G$  such that  $\forall a \in G : a * e = e * a = a$
- iii. Inversion:  $\forall a \in G (\exists b \in G (a * b = b * a = e))$  (where  $e$  is as described in ii)

### Lecture 4 (2016–01–20)

Recall the definition of a group.

DEFINITION 15.  $(G, *)$  is an abelian (commutative) group if it is a group and

- iv.  $(G, *)$  is commutative ( $\forall x, y \in G : x * y = y * x$ )

Let  $(G, *)$  be an arbitrary but fixed group.

PROPOSITION 16. *There is a unique identity element.*

PROOF. Suppose  $e$  and  $f$  both satisfy the second group property. we compute  $e * f$  in two ways.  $e * f = f$  and  $e * f = e$ , so by transitivity,  $e = f$ . □

PROPOSITION 17. *If  $a \in G$ ,  $a$  has a unique inverse.*

PROOF. Suppose that  $b$  and  $c$  are both inverses for  $a$ ,  $b * a = e$ ,  $a * c = e$ . Then,

$$b = b * e = b * (a * c) = (b * a) * c = e * c = c$$

□

Notational Conventions.

- We will often just call a group  $G$  instead of  $(G, *)$
- We abbreviate multiplication  $(x * y)$  as  $x \cdot y$  or just  $xy$
- We will often write  $xyz$  for  $(x * y) * z$  (due to associativity)
- When working with  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , we'll just use  $+$
- We'll denote the (unique) identity of  $G$  by 1 or by  $e$ .
- We'll denote the inverse of  $x$  by  $x^{-1}$
- Given an integer exponent  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $x \in G$ , define

$$x^n = \begin{cases} \prod_{i=1}^n x, & \text{if } n > 0 \\ e, & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \prod_{i=1}^{-n} (x^{-1}), & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Group Examples. “Definition:”  $\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \right\}$

- (1)  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  is an abelian group
- (2)  $(\mathbb{Z}, \times)$  is not a group  
Why? 2 has no inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}$ . ( $\nexists x \in \mathbb{Z} : (2x = 1)$ )
- (3)  $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$  is an abelian group
- (4)  $(\mathbb{Q}, \times)$  is not a group (0 has no inverse)
- (5)  $(\mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}, \times)$  is an abelian group.
- (6)  $\text{GL}(n)$  is the set of matrices  $A_{n \times n}$  for which  $\det A_{n \times n} \neq 0$
- (7) The set  $G$  of  $2 \times 2$  matrices with determinant 1, along with matrix multiplication, is a group. Called the “special linear group.”

Closure:

$$\det \left( \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{pmatrix} \right) = (bc - ad)(fg - eh) = 1$$

- i. Associativity: proof left for the reader.
  - ii. Identity:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
  - iii. Given  $a = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$ , take  $a^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}$ , which you can verify is still in  $G$ .
- The group is *not* abelian. Take  $a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Verify that  $ab \neq ba$
- (8) Suppose that  $X \neq \emptyset$  is some set, and denote by  $S_X$  the set of bijections  $f : X \rightarrow X$ . Then  $(S_X, \circ)$  is a group, where  $\circ$  is function composition. ( $(f \circ g)$  is the function  $x \mapsto f(g(x))$ .)
- Identity is  $x \mapsto x$ . Inversion  $f^{-1} = f^{-1}$ .



# Symmetric Groups

## Lecture 5 (2016–01–25)

Recall: if  $X$  is a set then  $S_X$  is the group of bijections on it.

DEFINITION 18.  $S_X$  (or  $\text{Sym}_X$ ) is called the symmetric group on  $X$ .

Note:  $\circ$  is associative because  $(f \circ g) \circ h$  is

$$x \xrightarrow{h} (x) \xrightarrow{g} g(h(x)) \xrightarrow{f} f(g(h(x)))$$

Note: if  $X = \{1, \dots, n\}$ , then we usually write  $\underline{S_n}$  instead of  $S_{\{1, \dots, n\}}$ . (Sometimes called symmetric group of degree  $n$ .)

Let's examine  $S_3$ :

elt.	1	2	3
$e$	1	2	3
$a$	1	2	3
$b$	1	3	2
$c$	2	3	1
$d$	3	1	2
$f$	3	2	1

The group has  $6 = 3!$  elements.

Lets compute  $ab$  and  $ba$

$ab = a \circ b$ , looking it up in the table gives  $ab = d$  and  $ba = c$ .

In particular,  $S_3$  is not abelian.

DEFINITION 19. A cycle is a permutation  $\sigma$  of the following form:

There is a sequence  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$  of finitely many (distinct) elements of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $\sigma(x_{i-1}) = x_i$ ,  $\sigma(x_m) = x_1$ , and  $\sigma(y) = y$ , for  $y \notin \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ .

We call  $m$  the length of the cycle.

Ex. In  $S_3$ ,  $d = \frac{1\ 2\ 3}{3\ 1\ 2}$  is a cycle of length 3, with  $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 3, x_3 = 2$ .

Ex. In  $S_3$ ,  $a = \frac{1\ 2\ 3}{1\ 3\ 2}$  is a cycle of length 2, with  $x_1 = 2, x_2 = 3$ .

NOTATION. Given a cycle, we can efficiently denote it by  $(x_1\ x_2\ x_3\ \dots\ x_m)$ .

EXAMPLE. In  $S_3$ ,  $a = \frac{1\ 2\ 3}{1\ 3\ 2}$  would be written as  $(1\ 3\ 2)$ .

Let's work in  $S_5$ .

$\varphi := \frac{1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 5}{3\ 4\ 1\ 5\ 2}$  is not a cycle, but it is the “superposition” of two cycles  $(1\ 3)$  and  $(2\ 4\ 5)$ . Thus, we may write  $\varphi = (1\ 3) \circ (2\ 4\ 5)$ , or  $(2\ 4\ 5)(1\ 3)$ .

THEOREM 20. *Every permutation in  $S_n$  may be written as the product of “disjoint” cycles. (The identity is the empty product).*

PROOF. Sketch: If you have  $e$  then you're done trivially. Otherwise, fix the least element  $x$  of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  "moved" by  $\sigma$  (i.e.  $\sigma(x) \neq x$ ). Look at  $x, \sigma(x), \sigma^2(x), \dots, \sigma^m(x) = \sigma^n(x)$ ,  $n < m$ . So, as  $\sigma$  is invertible,  $\sigma^{m-n}(x) = x$ , so  $x$  is part of a cycle.  $\square$

THEOREM 21. *Cycles can be written as a product of transpositions.*

*General propositions on inversion in groups.* Let  $G$  be a group, and let  $a, b, x \in G$  be arbitrary.

- $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$

PROOF. Show that  $a$  is the inverse of  $a^{-1}$ . Follows from group axiom.  $\square$

- $(ab)^{-1} = b^{-1}a^{-1}$

PROOF.  $(ab)(b^{-1}a^{-1}) = (a(bb^{-1}))a^{-1} = (ae)a^{-1} = aa^{-1} = e$ . Similarly, this works when we multiply from the other side.  $\square$

## Lecture 6 (2016-01-27)

DEFINITION 22. The cardinality (or order) of a group  $G$  is the number of elements in it, denoted by  $|G|$ .

EXAMPLE.

- $|\mathbb{Z}| = \infty (= \aleph_0)$
- $|\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}| = 5$
- $|S_4| = 4! = 24$

DEFINITION 23. Given a group  $G$  and  $x \in G$ , the order of  $x$  is the smallest integer  $n > 0$  such that  $x^n = e$ . If no such  $n$  exists, we say the order is  $\infty$ .

We denote by  $|x|$  the order of  $x$ .

EXAMPLE. In  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ :  $|0| = 1$ ,  $|5| = \infty$ .

In  $S_5$ :  $|(1\ 3)| = 2$ ,  $|(2\ 4\ 5)| = 3$ ,  $|(1\ 3)(2\ 4\ 5)| = 6$ .

PROPOSITION 24. *If  $G$  is a finite group, every  $x \in G$  has finite order. Moreover,  $|x| \leq |G|$ .*

PROOF. Say  $|G| = k$ . Consider the sequence  $x^0, x^1, x^2, \dots, x^k$ . There are  $k+1$  items in the sequence. So  $\exists m < n$  such that  $x^m = x^n$ .  $x^{n-m} = x^n x^{-m} = x^m x^{-m} = e$ . As  $0 < n - m \leq k$ , it follows that  $|x| \leq n - m \leq |G|$ .  $\square$

## Subgroups

DEFINITION 25. Suppose  $(G, *)$  is a group and  $H \subseteq G$  some subset of  $G$ . We say  $H$  is a subgroup of  $G$ , written  $H \leq G$  if  $(H, *)$  happens to be a group, i.e., the following properties hold:

$*$  is a associative binary operator on  $H$  (i.e., it's closed) with inverses and an identity element.

EXAMPLE.

- $\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Q}$  (under addition)
- Even integers  $\leq \mathbb{Z}$  (under addition)
- $n\mathbb{Z} \leq \mathbb{Z}$ , where  $n\mathbb{Z} := \{nx : x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$   
     Aside: every subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}$  is of the form  $n\mathbb{Z}$
- $\{e, (1\ 2)(3\ 4), (1\ 3)(2\ 4), (1\ 4)(2\ 3)\} \leq S_4$ .

PROPOSITION 26. (HW):  $H \leq G$  iff

- (a)  $H \neq \emptyset$  (nonempty)
- (b)  $\forall x, y \in H (xy \in H)$  (closed under product)
- (c)  $\forall x \in H (x^{-1} \in H)$  (closed under inverses)

PROPOSITION 27. Suppose  $G$  is a finite group. Then  $H \leq G$  iff  $H \neq \emptyset$  and  $\forall x, y \in H : xy \in H$ .

PROOF. We show that for  $H \subseteq G$  (a) and (b)  $\implies$  (c) (letters from proposition (26))  
 Fix  $x \in H$ . Since  $G$  is finite,  $|x|$  is finite (in  $G$ ). Say  $|x| = n > 0$   $x^n = \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}} = e_G$ .

Hence,  $e_G \in H$ .

Examine  $x^{n-1}$ .

$$x^{n-1} = \begin{cases} x^0 = e & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \underbrace{x \cdot x \cdot \dots \cdot x}_{n \text{ times}} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

But  $x^{n-1} = x^{-1}$ , since  $x^{n-1}x = x^n = xx^{n-1} = e$ . Thus, (c) holds for  $H$ . □

REMARK.  $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \dots\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ , but  $\mathbb{N} \not\leq \mathbb{Z}$ , despite satisfying (a) and (b).

## (Left) Coset equivalence

Suppose  $G$  is a group and  $H \leq G$  is a subgroup of  $G$ .

DEFINITION 28. We say  $x \sim y \pmod{H}$  if  $x^{-1}y \in H$ .

PROPOSITION 29.  $\sim \pmod{H}$  is an equivalence relation.

PROOF.

- Reflexivity ( $x \sim x$ ):  
 $x^{-1}x = e \in H$ , so  $x \sim x$ .
- Symmetry ( $x \sim y \implies y \sim x$ ):  
 We know  $x^{-1}y \in H$ .  $H$  is closed under inversion, so  $H \ni (x^{-1}y)^{-1} = (y^{-1}(x^{-1})^{-1}) = (y^{-1}x)$ . Thus,  $y \sim x$ .
- Transitivity ( $(x \sim y) \wedge (y \sim z) \implies (x \sim z)$ ):  
 We know  $x^{-1}y \in H$  and  $y^{-1}z \in H$ .  
 Thus,  $H \ni (x^{-1}y)(y^{-1}z) = x^{-1}ez = x^{-1}z$ , so  $x \sim z$ .

□

## Lecture 7 (2016-01-29)

$G$  is a group.  $H \leq G$  a fixed subgroup of  $G$ .

Given  $x, y \in G$ ,  $x \sim y \pmod{H}$  iff

$$x^{-1}y \in H.$$

Last time: we showed it was an equivalence relation.

What are the equivalence classes of  $\sim \pmod{H}$ ? We examine

$$\begin{aligned} [x] &= \{y \in G : x \sim y \pmod{H}\} \\ &= \{y \in G : x^{-1}y \in H\} \\ &= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H (x^{-1}y = h)\} \\ &= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H (x(x^{-1}y) = xh)\} \\ &= \{y \in G : \exists h \in H (y = xh)\} \end{aligned}$$

So,  $[x]$  is exactly the set

$$\{xh : h \in H\}.$$

NOTATION. We write  $xH$  to abbreviate the set  $\{xh : h \in H\}$ .

DEFINITION 30. The equivalence class  $xH$  is called the (left) coset of  $x$  with respect to  $H$ .

NOTATION. The cyclic subgroup of  $x$  is denoted by  $\langle x \rangle$ .

Examples:

- $G = (\mathbb{Z}, +)$ ,  $H = n\mathbb{Z} = \text{multiples of } n$ . So  $H \leq G$ . For  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , its coset is  $\bar{x} = \{x + h : h \in n\mathbb{Z}\} = \{x + nk : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- $G = S_3 = \{e, (1\ 2), (1\ 3), (2\ 3), (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$  Take  $H = \{e, (1\ 2\ 3), (1\ 3\ 2)\} \leq S_3$  (the cyclic subgroup of  $(1\ 2\ 3)$ ).

So what are the cosets?  $eH = \{eh : h \in H\} = \{h : h \in H\} = H$ . (In general,  $eH$  is always just  $H$ ). (Even more generally,  $xH = H$  whenever  $x \in H$ .)

Another coset is  $(1\ 2)H$ . Just compute  $(1\ 2)h$  for each  $h \in H$ . Thus

$$(1\ 2)H = \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} (1\ 2) & e & = (1\ 2) \\ (1\ 2) & (1\ 2\ 3) & = (2\ 3) \\ (1\ 2) & (1\ 3\ 2) & = (1\ 3) \end{array} \right\} = \{(1\ 2), (2\ 3), (1\ 3)\}$$

We note that  $(1\ 2)H = (2\ 3)H = (1\ 3)H$ , as each of those are in  $(1\ 2)H$ .

- $G = S_3$ ,  $K = \langle (1\ 3) \rangle = \{e, (1\ 3)\} \leq G$ . Analyze cosets mod  $K$ .

Easy coset:  $eK = K$ .

For the next coset, choose  $(1\ 2\ 3)K$

$$(1\ 2\ 3)K = \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} (1\ 2\ 3) & e & = (1\ 2\ 3) \\ (1\ 2\ 3) & (1\ 3) & = (2\ 3) \end{array} \right\} = \{(1\ 2\ 3), (2\ 3)\}$$

Next coset after that is  $(1\ 2)K = \{(1\ 2), (1\ 3\ 2)\}$ .

We note that the equivalence classes mod  $K$  partition  $S_3$ , Although they are not all subgroups.

In the last two examples, it wasn't a coincidence that each coset was of the same cardinality.

PROPOSITION 31. Suppose  $G$  is a group,  $H \leq G$ , and  $x \in G$ . Then  $|xH| = |H|$ .

PROOF. We establish a bijection between  $H$  and  $xH$ .

Define  $\varphi : H \rightarrow xH$ ,  $\varphi(h) = xh$ .

CLAIM (1).  $\varphi$  is surjective.

PROOF. Suppose  $y \in xH$ .

By definition of  $xH$ ,  $\exists h \in H$  such that  $y = xh$ . so  $y = \varphi(h)$ . □(C1)

CLAIM (2).  $\varphi$  is injective.

PROOF. Suppose  $h_1, h_2 \in H$  such that  $\varphi(h_1) = \varphi(h_2)$ .

By definition of  $\varphi$ , we have  $xh_1 = xh_2$ . Since  $G$  is a group,  $x$  has an inverse  $x^{-1}$ .

Thus,  $x^{-1}(xh_1) = x^{-1}(xh_2) \implies h_1 = h_2$  as desired. □(C2)

Thus  $\varphi$  is a bijection, meaning  $|xH| = |H|$  as desired. □(Prop.)

THEOREM 32 (Lagrange). Suppose that  $G$  is a finite group and  $H \leq G$ . Then  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ .

PROOF. Left coset equivalence partitions  $G$  into  $k$  equivalence classes of size  $|H|$ .

Thus  $|G| = k|H|$ , as desired. □

COROLLARY 33. Suppose that  $G$  is a finite group and  $x \in G$ . Then  $|x|$  divides  $|G|$ .

PROOF. Consider  $\langle x \rangle$  (the cyclic subgroup generated by  $x$ ).  $\langle x \rangle = \{e, x, x^2, \dots, x^{n-1}\}$ , where  $|x| = n$ .  $|\langle x \rangle| = n$ . Hence  $n = |x|$  divides  $|G|$ . □

## Index

$S_n$ , 7  
(Left) Coset Of  $x$  With Respect To  $H$ , 10  
Associative, 1  
Associativity, 1  
Commutativity, 1  
Distributive, 1  
Identity, 1  
Integer Division, 1  
Inversion, 1  
Relatively Prime, 2  
Abelian, 5  
Binary Operation, 5  
Cardinality, 8  
Cycle, 7  
Equivalence Class, 3  
Gcd, 1  
Group, 5  
Length, 7  
Order, 8  
Subgroup, 9  
Symmetric Group Of Degree  $n$ , 7  
Symmetric Group, 7